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# AP EUROPEAN HISTORY

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Modifications will be made to accommodate IEP mandates for classified students.
Statement of Purpose

The AP European History program will provide an opportunity for students to acquire an understanding of the development of European history from the Renaissance (1450 C.E. used for periodization) to the present. The program is designed to develop students’ ability to reason conceptually about history and to apply numerous historical thinking skills to what they’ve learned about the past.

In line with College Board standards for accreditation, the AP European history program will use a college-level textbook, diverse primary source material, and multiple secondary sources to cover four historical periods from the Renaissance to the present. Also, students will be given numerous opportunities to apply learning objectives based on five selected themes: the interaction of Europe and the world, poverty and prosperity, objective knowledge and subjective visions, states and other institutions of power, and the individual and society. Finally, there will be an emphasis on nine historical thinking skills throughout the program: historical argumentation, interpretation, appropriate use of historical evidence, historical causation, patterns of continuity and change over time, periodization, comparison, contextualization, and synthesis.

All teachers of the AP European history course will submit a unique course syllabus or adopt a pre-approved syllabus, authorized by the College Board, to meet the curricular requirements of an Advanced Placement audit process.

Where applicable, this guide has also been aligned to the latest state and Common Core standards. Included throughout are references to “6.2 World History/Global Studies”, “6.3 Active Citizenship in the 21st Century”, and “8.1 Educational Technology”.
Course Objectives

THE BROAD COURSE THEMES, UNDERSTANDINGS SKILLS AND OBJECTIVES (BUT NOT LIMITED TO) ARE THE FOLLOWING:

I. Political and Diplomatic History - Students will demonstrate an understanding of:

   A. Rise and functioning of the modern state in its various forms.
   B. Evolution of political elite's and the development of political parties and ideologies.
   C. Extension and limitation of individual civil liberties.
   D. Development and growth of nationalism.
   E. Forms of political protest, reform and revolution.
   F. Relationship of European and non-European powers, including colonialism and imperialism.
   G. Relationship between domestic and foreign policies.
   H. Efforts to restrain interstate conflict: treaties, balance of power, diplomacy and international organization.

II. Intellectual and Cultural History - Students will demonstrate an understanding of the:

   A. Secularization of learning and culture.
   B. Changes in religious thought and organization.
   C. Scientific revolution and its consequences.
   D. Major trends in literature and the arts as statements of cultural values and as historical evidence.
   E. Developments in social thought.
   F. Spread of literacy.
   G. Diffusion of new intellectual concepts among different social groups.
   H. Changes in popular culture such as the development of new attitudes toward religion, toward the family and toward work.

III. Social and Economic History - Students will demonstrate an understanding of the:

   A. Role of urbanization in transforming cultural values and social relationships.
   B. Shift in social structures from hierarchical orders to modern social classes.
   C. Changes in the nature of elite's and their interaction with the lower classes.
   D. Development of commercial practices and their economic and social impact.
   E. Origins, development and consequences of industrialization.
   F. Changes in the demographic structure of Europe.
   G. Change and continuity in the European family structure and in gender roles.
   H. Growth and competition and interdependence in national and world markets.

IV. Themes – Learning objectives will emphasize (but not be limited to) the following themes throughout the course:
A. The Interaction of Europe and the World
B. Poverty and Prosperity
C. Objective Knowledge and Subjective Visions
D. States and other Institutions of Power
E. The Individual and Society

V. Skills - Students will demonstrate proficiency in the historical thinking skills tied to:

A. "causation"
B. "patterns of continuity and change over time"
C. "periodization"
D. "comparison"
E. "contextualization"
F. "historical argumentation"
G. "appropriate use of relevant historical evidence"
H. "interpretation"
I. "synthesis"
First Quarter Units: Period 1
Second Quarter Units: Period 2
Third Quarter Units: Period 3
Fourth Quarter Units: Period 4
Key Concept 1.1. The worldview of European Intellectuals shifted from one based on ecclesiastical and classical authority to one based primarily on inquiry and observation of the natural world.

I. A revival of classical texts led to new methods of scholarship and new values in both society and religion.
   a. Italian Renaissance humanists promoted a revival in classical literature and created new philological approaches to ancient texts. Some Renaissance humanists furthered the values of secularism and individualism.
   b. Humanist revival of Greek and Roman texts, spread by the printing press, challenged the institutional power of universities and the Roman Catholic Church and shifted the focus of education away from theology toward the study of the classical texts.
   c. Admiration for Greek and Roman political institutions supported a revival of civic humanist culture in the Italian city-states and produced secular models for individual and political behavior.

II. The invention of the printing promoted the dissemination of new ideas.
   a. The invention of the printing press in the 1450s aided in spreading the Renaissance beyond Italy and encouraged the growth of vernacular literature, which would eventually contribute to the development of national cultures.
   b. Protestant reformers used the press to disseminate their ideas, which spurred religious reform and helped to become widely established.

III. The visual arts incorporated the new ideas of the Renaissance and were used to promote personal, political, and religious goals.
   a. Princes and popes, concerned with enhancing their prestige, commissioned paintings and architectural works based on classical styles and often employing the newly invented technique of geometric perspective.
   b. A human-centered naturalism that considered individuals and everyday life appropriate objects of artistic representation was encouraged through the patronage of both princes and commercial elites.
   c. Mannerist and Baroque artists employed distortion, drama, and illusion in works commissioned by monarchies, city-states, and the church for public buildings to promote their stature and power.

IV. New ideas in science based on observation, experimentation and mathematics challenged classical views of the cosmos, nature, and the human body, though folk traditions of knowledge and the universe persisted.
   a. New ideas and methods in astronomy led individuals such as Copernicus, Galileo, and Newton to question the authority of the ancients and religion and to develop a heliocentric view of the cosmos.
   b. Anatomical and medical discoveries by physicians, including William Harvey, presented the body as an integrated system, challenging the traditional humoral theory of the body and of disease espoused by Galen.
   c. Francis Bacon and Rene Descartes defined inductive and deductive reasoning and promoted experimentation and the use of mathematics, which would ultimately shape the "scientific method."
Alchemy and astrology continued to appeal to elites and to some natural philosophers, in part because they shared with the new science the notion of a predictable and knowable universe. In oral culture of peasants, a belief that the cosmos was governed by divine and demonic forces persisted.

**Key Concept 1.2** The struggle for sovereignty within and among states resulted in varying degrees of political centralization.

I. The new concept of the sovereign state and secular system of law played a central role in the creation of new political institutions.
   a. New monarchies laid the foundation for the centralized modern state by establishing a monopoly on tax collection, military force, and the dispensing of justice, and by gaining the right to determine the religion of their subjects.
   b. The Peace of Westphalia (1648), which marked the effective end of the medieval ideal of universal Christendom, accelerated the decline of the Holy Roman Empire by granting princes, bishops and other local leaders control over religion.
   c. Across Europe, commercial and professional groups gained in power and played a greater role in political affairs.
   d. Secular political theories, such as those espoused in Machiavelli’s *The Prince*, provided a new concept of the state.

II. The competitive state system led to new patterns of diplomacy and new forms of warfare.
   a. Following the Peace of Westphalia, religion no longer was a cause for warfare among European states; instead, the concept of the balance of power played an important role in structuring diplomatic and military objectives.
   b. Advances in military technology (ie. the "military revolution") led to new forms of warfare, including greater reliance on infantry, firearms, mobile cannon, and more elaborate fortifications, all financed by heavier taxation and requiring a larger bureaucracy. Technology, tactics, and strategies tipped the balance of power toward states able to marshal sufficient resources for the new military environment.

III. The competition for power between monarchs and corporate groups produced different distributions of governmental authority in European states.
   a. The English Civil War, a conflict between the monarchy, Parliament, and other elites over their respective roles in the political structure, exemplified this competition.
   b. Monarchies seeking enhanced power faced challenges from nobles who wished to retain traditional forms of shared governance and regional autonomy.

**Key Concept 1.3** Religious pluralism challenged the concept of a unified Europe

I. The Protestant and Catholic Reformations fundamentally changed theology, religious institutions, and culture.
   a. Christian humanism, embodied in the writings of Erasmus, employed Renaissance learning in the service of religious freedom.
   b. Reformers Martin Luther and John Calvin, as well as religious radicals such as the Anabaptists, criticized Catholic abuses and established new interpretations of Christian doctrine and practice.
   c. The Catholic Reformation, exemplified by the Jesuit Order and the Council of Trent, revived the church but cemented the division within Christianity.
II. Religious reform both increased state control of religious institutions and provided justifications for challenging state authority.
   a. Monarchs and princes, such as the English rulers Henry VIII and Elizabeth I, initiated religious reform from the top down (“magisterial”) in an effort to exercise greater control over religious life and morality.
   b. Some Protestants, including Calvin and the Anabaptists, refused to recognize the subordination of the church to the state.
   c. Religious conflicts became a basis for challenging the monarchs’ control of religious institutions.

III. Conflicts among religious groups overlapped with political and economic competition within and among states
   a. Issues of religious reform exacerbated conflicts between the monarchy and the nobility, as in the French Wars of Religion.
   b. The efforts of Habsburg rulers failed to restore Catholic unity across Europe.
   c. States exploited religious conflicts to promote political and economic interests.
   d. A few states, such as France with the Edict of Nantes, allowed religious pluralism in order to maintain domestic peace.

Key Concept 1.4 Europeans explored and settled overseas territories encountering and interacting with indigenous populations.

I. European nations were driven by commercial and religious motives to explore overseas territories and establish colonies.
   a. European states sought direct access to gold and spices and luxury goods as a means to enhance personal wealth and state power.
   b. The rise of mercantilism gave the state a new role in promoting commercial development and the acquisition of colonies overseas.
   c. Christianity served as a stimulus for exploration as governments and religious authorities sought to spread the faith and counter Islam, and as justification for the physical and cultural subjugation of indigenous civilizations.

II. Advances in navigation, cartography, and military technology allowed Europeans to establish overseas colonies and empires.

III. Europeans established overseas empires and trade networks through coercion and negotiation.
   a. The Portuguese established a commercial network along the African coast, in South and East Asia, and in South America.
   b. The Spanish established colonies across the Americas, the Caribbean, and the Pacific, which made Spain a dominant state in Europe.
   c. The Atlantic nations of France, England, and the Netherlands followed by establishing their own colonies and trading networks to compete with Portuguese and Spanish dominance.
   d. The competition for trade led to conflicts and rivalries among European powers.

IV. Europe’s colonial expansion led to a global exchange of goods, flora, fauna, cultural practices, and diseases, resulting in the destruction of some indigenous civilizations, a shift toward European dominance, and the expansion of the slave trade.
a. The exchange of goods shifted the center of economic power in Europe from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic states and brought the latter into an expanding world economy.

b. The exchange of new plants, animals, and disease—the Columbian Exchange—created economic opportunities for Europeans and facilitated European subjugation and destruction of indigenous peoples, particularly in the Americas.

c. Europeans expanded the African slave trade in response to the establishment of a plantation economy in the Americas and demographic catastrophes among indigenous peoples.

Key Concept 1.5 European society and the experiences of everyday life were increasingly shaped by religious and agricultural capitalism, notwithstanding the persistence of medieval social and economic structures.

I. Economic change produced new social patterns, while traditions of hierarchy and status persisted.
   a. Innovations in banking and finance promoted the growth of urban financial centers and of a money economy.
   b. The growth of commerce produced a new economic elite, which related to traditional elites in different ways in Europe’s various geographic regions.
   c. Hierarchy and status continued to define social power and perceptions in rural and urban settings.

II. Most Europeans derived their livelihood from agriculture oriented their lives around the seasons, the village, or the manor, although economic changes began to alter rural production and power.
   a. Subsistence agriculture was the rule in most areas, with three-crop field rotation in the north and two-crop rotation in the Mediterranean; in many cases, farmers paid rent and labor services for their lands.
   b. The price revolution contributed to the accumulation of capital and the expansion of the market economy through the commercialization of agriculture, which benefitted large landowners in western Europe.
   c. As western Europe moved toward a free peasantry and commercial agriculture, serfdom was codified in the east, where nobles continued to dominate economic life on large estates.
   d. The attempts of landlords to increase their revenues by restricting or abolishing the traditional rights of peasants led to revolt.

III. Population shifts and growing commerce caused the expansion of cities which often found their traditional political and social structures stressed by the growth.
   a. Population recovered to its pre-Great Plague level in the 16th century, and continuing population pressures contributed to uneven price increases; agricultural commodities increased more sharply than wages, reducing living standards for some.
   b. Migrants to the cities challenged the ability of merchant elites and craft guilds to govern and strained resources.
   c. Social dislocation, coupled with the weakening of religious institutions during the Reformation, left city governments with the task of regulating public morals.
IV. The family remained the primary social and economic institution of early modern Europe and took several forms, including the nuclear family.
   a. Rural and urban households worked as units, with men and women engaged in separate but complementary tasks.
   b. The Renaissance and Reformation movements raised debates about female roles in the family, society, and the church.
   c. From the late 16th century forward, Europeans responded to economic and environmental challenges, such as the "Little Ice Age," by delaying marriage and childbearing, which restrained population growth and ultimately improved the economic condition of families.

V. Popular culture, leisure activities, and rituals reflecting the persistence of folk ideas reinforced and sometimes challenged communal ties and norms.
   a. Leisure activities continued to be organized according to the religious calendar and the agricultural cycle and remained communal in nature.
   b. Local and church authorities continued to enforce communal norms through rituals of public humiliation.
   c. Reflecting folk ideas and social and economic upheaval, accusations of witchcraft peaked between 1580 and 1650.
PERIOD 2: 1648 TO 1815

Key Concept 2.1 Different models of political sovereignty affected the relationship among states and between states and individuals. (SS 6.3)

I. In much of Europe, absolute monarchy was established over the course of the 17th and 18th centuries.
   a. Absolute monarchies limited the nobility's participation in governance but preserved the aristocracy's social position and legal privileges.
   b. Louis XIV and his finance minister Jean-Baptiste Colbert extended the administrative, financial, military, and religious control of the central state over the French population.
   c. In the 18th century, a number of states in eastern and central Europe experimented with "enlightened absolutism”
   d. The inability of the Polish monarchy to consolidate its authority over the nobility led to Poland's partition by Prussia, Russia, and Austria, and its disappearance from the map of Europe.
   e. Peter the Great “westernized” the Russian state and society, transforming political, religious, and cultural institutions; Catherine the Great continued this process.

II. Challenges to absolutism resulted in alternative political systems
   a. The outcome of the English Civil War and the Glorious Revolution protected the rights of gentry and aristocracy from absolutism through assertions of the rights of Parliament.
   b. The Dutch Republic developed an oligarchy of urban gentry and rural landholders to promise trade and protect individual rights.

III. After 1648, dynastic and state interests, along with Europe's expanding colonial empires, influenced the diplomacy of European states and frequently led to war. (SS 6.2)
   a. As a result of the Holy Roman Empire’s limitation of sovereignty in the Peace of Westphalia, Prussia rose to power and the Habsburgs, centered in Austria, shifted their empire eastward.
   b. After the Austrian defeat of the Turks in 1683 at the Battle of Vienna, the Ottomans ceased their westward expansion.
   c. Louis XIV’s nearly continuous wars, pursuing both dynastic and state interests, provoked a coalition of European powers opposing him.
   d. Rivalry between Britain and France resulted in world wars fought both in Europe and in the colonies, with Britain supplanting France as the greatest European power.

IV. The French Revolution posed a fundamental challenge to Europe’s existing political and social order (SS 6.2)
   a. The French Revolution resulted from a combination of long-term social and political causes, as well as Enlightenment ideas, exacerbated by short-term fiscal and economic crises.
   b. The first, or liberal, phase of the French Revolution established a constitutional monarchy, increased popular participation, nationalized the Catholic Church, and abolished hereditary privileges.
   c. After the execution of Louis XVI, the radical Jacobin Republic led by Robespierre responded to opposition at home and war abroad by instituting the Reign of Terror, fixing prices and wages, and pursuing a policy of de-Christianization.
   d. Revolutionary armies, raised by mass conscription, sought to bring the changes initiated in France to the rest of Europe.
   e. Women enthusiastically participated in the early phases of the revolution; however, while there were brief improvements in the legal status of women, citizenship in the republic was soon restricted to men.
   f. Revolutionary ideals inspired a slave revolt led by Toussaint L’Ouverture in the French colony of Saint Domingue, which became the independent nation of Haiti in 1804.
While many were inspired by the revolution's emphasis on equality and human rights, others condemned its violence and disregard for traditional authority.

V. Claiming to defend the ideas of the French Revolution, Napoleon Bonaparte imposed French control over much of the European continent that eventually provoked a nationalistic reaction.
   a. As first consul and emperor, Napoleon undertook a number of enduring domestic reforms while often curtailing some rights and manipulating popular impulses behind a façade of representative institutions.
   b. Napoleon's new military tactics allowed him to exert direct or indirect control over much of the European continent, spreading the ideals of the French Revolution across Europe.
   c. Napoleon's expanding empire created nationalist responses throughout Europe.
   d. After the defeat of Napoleon by a coalition of European powers, the Congress of Vienna (1814-1815) attempted to restore the balance of power in Europe and contain the danger of revolutionary or nationalistic upheavals in the future.

Key Concept 2.2 The expansion of European commerce accelerated the growth of a worldwide economic network. (SS 6.2)

I. Early modern Europe developed a market economy that provided the foundation for its global role.
   a. Labor and trade in commodities were increasingly freed from traditional restrictions imposed by governments and corporate entities.
   b. The Agricultural Revolution raised productivity and increased the supply of food and other agricultural products.
   c. The putting-out system of cottage industry expanded as increasing numbers of laborers in homes or workshops produced for markets through merchant intermediaries or workshop owners.
   d. The development of the market economy led to new financial practices and institutions

II. The European-dominated worldwide economic network contributed to the agricultural, industrial, and consumer revolutions in Europe. (SS 8.1)
   a. European states followed mercantilist policies by exploiting colonies in the New World and elsewhere.
   b. The transatlantic slave-labor system expanded in the 17th and 18th centuries as demand for New World products increased.
   c. Overseas products and influences contributed to the development of a consumer culture in Europe
   d. The importation and transplantation of agricultural products from the Americas contributed to an increase in the food supply in Europe.
   e. Foreign lands provided raw materials, finished goods, laborers, and markets for the commercial and industrial enterprises in Europe.

III. Commercial rivalries influenced diplomacy and warfare among European states in the early modern era.
   a. European sea powers vied for Atlantic influence throughout the 18th century.
   b. Portuguese, Dutch, French, and British rivalries in Asia culminated in British domination in India and Dutch control of the East Indies.

Key Concept 2.3 The popularization and dissemination of the Scientific Revolution and the application of its methods to political, social, and ethical issues led to an increased, although not unchallenged, emphasis on reason in European culture.

I. Rational and empirical thought challenged traditional values and ideas. (SS 6.3)
   a. Intellectuals such as Voltaire and Diderot began to apply the principles of the scientific revolution to society and human institutions.
   b. Locke and Rousseau developed new political models based on the concept of natural rights.
Despite the principles of equality espoused by the Enlightenment and the French Revolution, intellectuals such as Rousseau offered new arguments for the exclusion of women from political life, which did not go unchallenged.

II. New public venues and print media popularized Enlightenment ideas. (SS 6.2)
   a. A variety of institutions, such as salons, explored and disseminated Enlightenment culture.
   b. Despite censorship, increasingly numerous and varied printed materials served a growing literate public and led to the development of "public opinion".
   c. Natural sciences, literature, and popular culture increasingly exposed Europeans to representations of peoples outside Europe.

III. New political and economic theories challenged absolutism and mercantilism. (SS 6.3)
   a. Political theories, such as John Locke’s, conceived of society as composed of individuals driven by self-interest and argued that the state originated in the consent of the governed (ie. a social contract) rather than in divine right or tradition.
   b. Mercantilist theory and practice were challenged by new economic ideas, such as Adam Smith’s, espousing free trade and a free market.

IV. During the Enlightenment, the rational analysis of religious practices led to natural religion and the demand for religious toleration. (SS 6.3)
   a. Intellectuals, including Voltaire and Diderot, developed new philosophies of deism, skepticism, and atheism.
   b. Religion was viewed increasingly as a matter of private rather than public concern.
   c. By 1800 most governments had extended toleration to Christian minorities, and, in some states, civil equality to Jews.

V. The arts moved from the celebration of religious themes and royal power to an emphasis on private life and the public good.
   a. Until about 1750, Baroque art and music promoted religious feeling and was employed by monarchs to glorify state power.
   b. Artistic movements and literature also reflected the outlook and values of commercial and bourgeois society as well as new Enlightenment ideals of political power and citizenship.

VI. While Enlightenment values dominated the world of European ideas, they were challenged by the revival of public sentiment and feeling.
   a. Rousseau questioned the exclusive reliance on reason and emphasized the role of emotions in the moral development of self and society.
   b. Revolution, war, and rebellion demonstrated the emotional power of mass politics and nationalism.
   c. Romanticism emerged as a challenge to Enlightenment rationality.

Key Concept 2.4 The experiences of everyday life were shaped by demographic, environmental, medical, and technological changes.

I. In the 17th century, small landholdings, low-productivity agricultural practices, poor transportation, and adverse weather limited and disrupted the food supply, causing periodic famines. By the end of the 18th century, Europeans began to escape from the Malthusian imbalance between population and the food supply, resulting in steady population growth.
   a. By the middle of the 18th century, higher agricultural productivity and improved transportation increased the food supply, allowing populations to grow and reducing the number of demographic crises (a process known as the Agricultural Revolution).
   b. In the 18th century, plague disappeared as a major epidemic disease, and inoculation reduced smallpox mortality.

II. The consumer revolution of the 18th century was shaped by a new concern for privacy, encouraged the purchase of new goods for homes, and created new venues for leisure activities.
III. By the 18th century, family and private life reflected new demographic patterns and the effects of the Commercial Revolution
a. Though the rate of illegitimate births increased in the 18th century, population growth was limited by the European marriage pattern and, in some areas, by the early practice of birth control.
b. As infant and child mortality decreased and commercial wealth increased, families dedicated more space and resources to children and child-rearing, as well as private life and comfort.

IV. Cities offered economic opportunities, which attracted increasing migration from rural areas, transforming urban life and creating challenges for the new urbanites and their families.
   a. The Agricultural Revolution produced more food using fewer workers; as a result, people migrated from rural areas to the cities in search of work.
   b. The growth of cities eroded traditional communal values, and city governments strained to provide protection and a healthy environment
   c. The concentration of the poor cities led to a greater awareness of poverty, crime, and prostitution as social problems and prompted increased efforts to police marginal groups.
PERIOD 3: 1815 TO 1914

Key Concept 3.1  The Industrial Revolution spread from Great Britain to the continent, where the state played a role in promoting industry. (SS 8.1)

I.  Great Britain established its industrial dominance through the mechanization of textile production, iron and steel production, and new transportation systems.
   a.  Britain’s ready supplies of coal, iron ore, and other essential raw materials promoted industrial growth.
   b.  Economic institutions and human capital such as engineers, inventors, and capitalists helped Britain lead the process of industrialization, largely through private initiative.
   c.  Britain’s parliamentary government promoted commercial and industrial interests, because those interests were represented in Parliament

II.  Following the British example, industrialization took root in continental Europe, sometimes with state sponsorship.
   a.  France moved toward industrialization at a more gradual pace than Great Britain, with government support and with less dislocation of traditional methods of production.
   b.  Industrialization in Prussia allowed that state to become the leader of a unified Germany, which subsequently underwent rapid industrialization under government sponsorship.
   c.  A combination of factors, including geography, lack of resources the dominance of traditional landed elites, the persistence of serfdom in some areas, and inadequate government sponsorship accounted for eastern and southern Europe’s lag in industrial development.

III.  During the Second Industrial Revolution (1870-1914), more areas of Europe experienced industrial activity, and industrial processes increased in scale and complexity (SS 6.2)
   a.  Mechanization and the factory system became the predominant modes of production by 1914
   b.  New technologies and means of communication and transportation—including railroads—resulted in more fully integrated national economies, a higher level of urbanization, and a truly global economic network.
   c.  Volatile business cycles in the last quarter of the 19th century led corporation and governments to try to manage the market through monopolies, banking practices, and tariffs.

Key Concept 3.2.  The experiences of everyday life were shaped by industrialization, depending on the level of industrial development in a particular location. (SS 8.1)

I.  Industrialization promoted the development of new classes in the industrial regions of Europe.
   a.  Industrialized areas of Europe (ie. western and northern Europe), socioeconomic changes created divisions of labor that led to the development of self-conscious classes, such as the proletariat and bourgeoisie
   b.  In some of the less industrialized areas of Europe, the dominance of agricultural elites persisted into the 20th century.
   c.  Class identity developed and was reinforced through participation in philanthropy, political, and social associations among the middle classes, and in mutual aid societies and trade unions among the working classes.
II. Europe experienced rapid population growth and urbanization, leading to social dislocations.
   a. Along with better harvests caused in part by the commercialization of agriculture, industrialization promoted population growth, longer life expectancy, and lowered infant mortality.
   b. With migration from rural to urban areas in industrialized regions, cities experienced overcrowding, while affected rural areas suffered declines in available labor as well as weakened communities.

III. Over time, the Industrial Revolution altered the family structure and relations for bourgeois and working-class families.
   a. Bourgeois families became focused on the nuclear family and the "cult of domesticity," with distinct gender roles for men and women.
   b. By the end of the century, wages and the quality of life for the working class improved because of laws restricting the labor of children and women, social welfare programs, improved diet, and the use of birth control.
   c. Economic motivations for marriage, while still import for all classes, diminished as the middle-class notion of companionate marriage began to be adopted by the working classes.
   d. Leisure time centered increasingly on the family or small groups, concurrent with the development of activities and spaces to use that time.

IV. A heightened consumerism developed as a result of the Second Industrial Revolution.
   a. Industrialization and mass marketing increased both the production and demand for a new range of consumer goods—including clothing, processed foods, and labor-saving and leisure.
   b. New efficient methods of transportation and other innovations created new industries, improved the distribution of goods, increased consumerism, and enhanced the quality of life.

V. Because of the persistence of primitive agricultural practices and land-owning patterns, some areas of Europe lagged in industrialization, while facing famine, debt, and land shortages.

Key Concept 3.3 The problems of industrialization provoked a range of ideological, governmental, and collective responses. (SS 6.3)

I. Ideologies developed and took root throughout society as a response to industrial and political revolutions.
   a. Liberals emphasized popular sovereignty, individual rights, and enlightened self-interest but debated the extent to which all groups in society should actively participate in its governance.
   b. Radicals in Britain and republicans on the continent demanded universal suffrage and full citizenship without regard to wealth and property ownership; some argued that such rights should be extended to women.
   c. Conservatives developed a new ideology in support of traditional political and religious authorities, which was based on the idea that human nature was perfectible.
   d. Socialists called for a fair distribution of society's resources and wealth, and evolved from a utopian to a Marxist "scientific" critique of capitalism.
   e. Anarchists asserted that all forms of governmental authority were unnecessary, and should be overthrown and replaced with a society based on voluntary cooperation.
   f. Nationalists encouraged loyalty to the nation in a variety of ways, including romantic idealism, liberal reform, political unification, racialism, with a concomitant anti-Semitism, and chauvinism justifying national aggrandizement.
   g. A form of Jewish nationalism, Zionism, developed in the late 19th century as a response to growing anti-Semitism in both western and eastern Europe.
II. Governments responded to the problems created or exacerbated by industrialization by expanding their functions and creating modern bureaucratic states
   a. Liberalism shifted from laissez-faire to interventionist economic and social policies on behalf of the less privileged; the policies were based on a rational approach to reform that addressed the impact of the Industrial Revolution on the individual.
   b. Government reforms transformed unhealthy and overcrowded cities by modernizing infrastructure, regulating public health, reforming prisons, and establishing modern police forces.
   c. Governments promoted compulsory public education to advance the goals of public order, nationalism, and economic growth.

III. Political movements and social organizations responded to the problems of industrialization (SS 6.3)
   a. Mass-based political parties emerged as sophisticated vehicles for social, economic, and political reform.
   b. Workers established labor unions and movements promoting social and economic reforms that also developed into political parties.
   c. Feminists pressed for legal, economic, and political rights for women, as well as improved working conditions.
   d. Various private, nongovernmental reform movements sought to lift up the deserving poor and serfdom and slavery

Key Concept 3.4. European states struggled to maintain international stability in an age of nationalism and revolutions. (SS 6.3)

I. The Concert of Europe (or Congress System) sought to maintain the status quo through collective action and adherence to conservatism.
   a. Metternich, architect of the Concert of Europe, used it to suppress nationalist and liberal revolutions.
   b. Conservatives re-established control in many European states and attempted to suppress movements for change an, in some areas, to strengthen adherence to religious authorities.
   c. In the first half of the 19th century, revolutionaries attempted to destroy the status quo.
   d. The revolutions of 1848 challenged the conservative order and led to the breakdown of the Concert of Europe.

II. The breakdown of the Concert of Europe opened the door for movements of national unification in Italy and Germany, as well as liberal reforms elsewhere.
   a. The Crimean War demonstrated the weakness of the Ottoman Empire and contributed to the breakdown of the Concert of Europe, thereby creating the conditions in which Italy and Germany could be unified after centuries of fragmentation.
   b. A new breed of conservative leaders, including Napoleon III, Cavour, and Bismarck, co-opted the agenda of nationalists for the purposes of creating or strengthening the state.
   c. The creation of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary, which recognized the political power of the largest ethnic minority, was an attempt to stabilize the state by reconfiguring national unity.
   d. In Russia, autocratic leaders pushed through a program of reform and modernization, which gave rise to revolutionary movements and eventually the Revolution of 1905.
III. The unification of Italy and Germany transformed the European balance of power and led to efforts to construct a new diplomatic order.
   a. Cavour’s *Realpolitik* strategies, combined with the popular Garibaldi’s military campaigns, led to the unification of Italy.
   b. Bismarck employed diplomacy, industrialized warfare and weaponry, and the manipulation of democratic mechanisms to unify Germany.
   c. After 1871 Bismarck attempted to maintain the balance of power through a complex system of alliances directed at isolating France.
   d. Bismarck’s dismissal in 1890 eventually led to a system of mutually antagonistic alliances and heightened international tensions.
   e. Nationalist tensions in the Balkans drew the Great Powers into a series of crises leading up to World War I.

**Key Concept 3.5** A variety of motives and methods led to the intensification of European global control and increased tensions among the Great Powers. (SS 6.2)

I. European nations were driven by economic, political, and cultural motivations in their new imperial ventures in Asia and Africa
   a. European national rivalries and strategic concerns fostered imperial expansion and competition for colonies.
   b. The search for raw materials and markets for manufactured goods, as well as strategic and nationalistic considerations, drove Europeans to colonize Africa and Asia, even as European in Americas broke free politically, if not economically.
   c. Europeans justified imperialism through an ideology of cultural and racial superiority.

II. Industrial and technological developments (ie. the Second Industrial Revolution) facilitated European colonial control of global empires. (SS 8.1)
   a. The development of advanced weaponry invariably ensured the military superiority of Europeans over colonized areas.
   b. Communication and transportation technologies allowed for the creation of European empires.
   c. Advances in medicine supported European control of Africa and Asia by preserving European lives.

III. Imperial endeavors significantly affected society, diplomacy, and culture in Europe and created resistance to foreign control abroad (SS 6.3)
   a. Imperialism created diplomatic tensions among European states that strained alliance systems.
   b. Imperial encounters with non-European peoples influenced the styles and subject matter of artists and writers and provoked debate over the acquisition of colonies.
   c. As non-Europeans became educated in Western values, they challenged European imperialism through nationalist movements and/or by modernizing their own economies and societies.

**Key Concept 3.6** European ideas and culture expressed a tension between objectivity and scientific realism on the one hand, and subjectivity and individual expression on the other.

I. Romanticism broke with neoclassical forms of artistic representation and with rationalism, placing more emphasis on intuition and emotion.
   a. Romantic artists and composers broke from classical artistic forms to emphasize emotion, nature, individuality, intuition, the supernatural, and national histories in their works.
   b. Romantic writers expressed similar themes while responding to the Industrial Revolution and various political revolutions. (SS 8.1)
II. Following the revolutions of 1848, Europe turned toward a realist and materialist worldview
   a. Positivism, or the philosophy that science alone provides knowledge, emphasized the
      rational and scientific analysis of nature and human affairs.
   b. Charles Darwin provided a rational and material account of biological change and the
      development of human beings as a species, and inadvertently a justification for racist
      theories known as “Social Darwinism.”
   c. Marx’s “scientific” socialism provided a systematic critique of capitalism and a
      deterministic analysis of society and historical evolution.
   d. Realist and materialist themes and attitudes influenced art and literature as painters and
      writers depicted the lives of ordinary people and drew attention to social problems.

III. A new relativism in values and the loss of confidence in the objectivity of knowledge led to
     modernism in intellectual and cultural life.
   a. Philosophy largely moved from rational interpretations of nature and human society to an
      emphasis on irrationality and impulse, a view that contributed to the belief that conflict
      and struggle led to progress.
   b. Freudian psychology provided a new account of human nature that emphasized the role
      of the irrational and the struggle between the conscious and subconscious.
   c. Developments in the natural sciences such as quantum mechanics and Einstein’s theory
      of relativity undermined the primacy of Newtonian physics as an objective description of
      nature.
   d. Modern art, including Impressionism, Post-Impressionism, and Cubism, moved beyond
      the representational to the subjective, abstract, and expressive and often provoked
      audiences that believed that art should reflect shared and idealized values such as
      beauty and patriotism.
PERIOD 4: 1914 TO THE PRESENT

Key Concept 4.1 Total war and political instability in the first half of the 20th century gave way to a polarized state order during the Cold War, and eventually to efforts at transnational union. (SS 6.2)

I. World War I, caused by a complex interaction of long-and short-term factors, resulted in immense losses and disruptions for both victors and vanquished.
   a. A variety of factors—including nationalism, military plans, the alliance system, and imperial competition—turned a regional dispute in the Balkans into World War I.
   b. New technologies confounded traditional military strategies and led to massive troop losses.
   c. The effects of military stalemate and total war led to protest and insurrection in the belligerent nations and eventually to revolutions that changed the international balance of power.
   d. The war in Europe quickly spread to non-European theaters, transforming the war into a global conflict.
   e. The relationship of Europe to the world shifted significantly with the globalization of the conflict, the emergence of the United States as a world power, and the overthrow of European empires.

II. The conflicting goals of the peace negotiators in Paris pitted diplomatic idealism against the desire to punish Germany, producing a settlement that satisfied few.
   a. Wilsonian idealism clashed with postwar realities in both the victorious and the defeated states. Democratic successor states emerged from former empires and eventually succumbed to significant political, economic, and diplomatic crises.
   b. The League of Nations, created to prevent future wars, was weakened from the outset by the nonparticipation of major powers, including the United States, Germany and the Soviet Union.
   c. The Versailles settlement, particularly its provisions on the assignment of guilt and reparations for the war, hindered the German Weimar Republic’s ability to establish a stable and legitimate political and economic system.

III. In the interwar period, fascism, extreme nationalism, racist ideologies, and the failure of appeasement resulted in the catastrophe of World War II, presenting a grave challenge to European civilization.
   a. French and British fears of another war, American isolationism, and deep distrust between Western democratic, capitalist nations and the communist Soviet Union allowed fascist states to rearm and expand their territory.
   b. Germany’s Blitzkrieg warfare in Europe, combined with Japan’s attacks in Asia and the Pacific, brought the Axis powers early victories.
   c. American and British industrial, scientific, and technological power and the all-out military commitment of the USSR contributed critically to the Allied victories. (SS 8.1)
   d. Fueled by racism and anti-Semitism, German Nazism sought to establish a “new racial order” in Europe, which culminated with the Holocaust.

IV. As World War II ended, a Cold War between the liberal democratic West and the communist East began, lasting nearly half a century.
   a. Despite efforts to maintain international cooperation through the newly created United Nations, deep-seated tensions between the USSR and the West led to the division of Europe, which was referred to in the West as the “Iron Curtain.”
   b. The Cold War played out on a global stage and involved propaganda campaigns; covert actions; limited “hot wars” in Asia, Africa, Latin America, and the Caribbean; and an arms race, with the threat of a nuclear war.
c. The United States exerted a strong military, political, and economic influence in Western Europe, leading to the creation of world monetary and trade systems and geopolitical alliances such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).

d. Countries east of the “Iron Curtain” came under the military, political, and economic domination of the Soviet Union with the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (COMECON) and the Warsaw Pact.

e. The collapse of the USSR in 1991 ended the Cold War, and led to the establishment of capitalist economies throughout Eastern Europe. Germany was reunited, the Czechs and the Slovaks parted, Yugoslavia dissolved, and the European Union was enlarged through admission of former Eastern bloc-countries.

V. In response to the destructive impact of two world wars, European nations began to set aside nationalism in favor of economic and political integration, forming a series of transnational unions that grew in size and scope over the second half of the 20th century.

a. As the economic alliance known as the European Coal and Steel Community, envisioned as a means to spur postwar economic recovery, developed into the European Economic Community (EEC or Common Market) and the European Union (EU), Europe experienced increasing economic and political integration and efforts to establish a shared European identity.

b. One of the major continuing challenges to countries in the EU is balancing national sovereignty with the responsibilities of membership in an economic and political union.

VI. Nationalist and separatist movements, along with ethnic conflict and ethnic cleansing, periodically disrupted the post-World War II peace.

VII. The process of decolonization occurred over the course of the century with varying degrees of cooperation, interference, or resistance from European imperialist states (SS 6.2) (SS 6.3)

a. At the end of World War I, President Woodrow Wilson’s principle of national self-determination raised expectations in the non-European world for freedom from colonial domination, expectations that led to international instability.

b. The League of Nations distributed former German and Ottoman possessions to France and Great Britain through the mandate system, thereby altering the imperial balance of power and creating a strategic interest in the Middle East and its oil.

c. Despite indigenous nationalist movements, independence for many African and Asian territories was delayed until the mid-and even late 20the century by the imperial powers’ reluctance to relinquish control, threats to interference from other nations, unstable economic and political systems, and Cold War strategic alignments.

Key Concept 4.2 The stresses of economic collapse and total war engendered internal conflicts within European states and created conflicting conceptions of the relationship between the individual and the state, as demonstrated in the ideological battle among liberal democracy, communism, and fascism.

I. The Russian Revolution created a regime based on Marxist-Leninist theory.

a. In Russia, World War I exacerbated long-term problems of political stagnation, social inequality, incomplete industrialization, and food and land distribution, all while creating support for revolutionary change.

b. Military and worker insurrections, aided by the revived soviets, undermined the Provisional Government and set the stage for Lenin’s long-planned Bolshevik revolution and establishment of a communist state.

c. The Bolshevik takeover prompted a protracted civil war between communist forces and their opponents, who were aided by foreign powers.

d. In order to improve economic performance, Lenin compromised with free market principles under the New Economic Policy, but after his death Stalin undertook a centralized program of rapid economic modernization.
e. Stalin’s economic modernization of the Soviet Union came at a high price, including the liquidation of the kulaks, famine in the Ukraine, purges of political rivals, unequal burdens of women, and the establishment of an oppressive political system.

II. The ideology of fascism, with roots in the pre-World War I era, gained popularity in an environment of postwar bitterness, the rise of communism, uncertain transitions to democracy, and economic instability.
   a. Fascist dictatorships used modern technology and propaganda that rejected democratic institutions, promoted charismatic leaders, and glorified war and nationalism to lure the disillusioned. (SS 8.1)
   b. Mussolini and Hitler rose to power by exploiting postwar bitterness and economic instability, using terror and manipulating the fledgling and unpopular democracies in their countries.
   c. Franco’s alliance with Italian and German fascists in the Spanish Civil War—in which the Western democracies did not intervene—represented a testing ground for World War II and resulted in authoritarian rule in Spain from 1936 to the mid-1970s.
   d. After failures to establish functioning democracies, authoritarian dictatorships took power in Central and Eastern Europe during the interwar period.

III. The Great Depression, caused by weakness in international trade and monetary theories and practices, undermined Western European democracies and fomented radical political responses throughout Europe.
   a. World War I debt, nationalist tariff policies, overproduction, depreciated currencies, disrupted trade patterns, and speculation created weaknesses in economies worldwide.
   b. Dependence on post-World War I American investment capital led to financial collapse when, following the 1929 stock market crash, the United States cut off capital flows to Europe.
   c. Despite attempts to rethink economic theories and policies and forge political alliances, Western democracies failed to overcome the Great Depression and were weakened by extremist movements.

IV. Postwar economic growth supported an increase in welfare benefits; however, subsequent economic stagnation led to criticism and limitation of the welfare state.
   a. Marshall Plan funds from the United States financed an extensive reconstruction of industry and infrastructure and stimulated an extended period of growth in Western and Central Europe, often referred to as an “economic miracle,” which increased the economic and cultural importance of consumerism.
   b. The expansion of cradle-to-grave social welfare programs in the aftermath of World War II, accompanied by high taxes, became a contentious domestic political issue as the budgets of European nations came under pressure in the late 20th century.

V. Eastern European nations were defined by their relationship with the Soviet Union, which oscillated between repression and limited reform, until Mikhail Gorbachev’s policies led to the collapse of communist governments in Eastern Europe and the fall of the Soviet Union. (SS 6.3)
   a. Central and Eastern European nations within the Soviet bloc followed an economic model based on central planning, extensive social welfare, and specialized production among the members.
   b. After 1956, Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev’s de-Stalinization policies failed to meet their economic goals within the Soviet Union and prompted revolts in Eastern Europe.
   c. Following a long period of economic stagnation, Mikhail Gorbachev’s internal reforms of perestroika and glasnost, designed to make the Soviet system more flexible, failed to stave off the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of its hegemonic control over Eastern and Central European satellites.
d. The rise of new nationalism in Central and Eastern Europe brought peaceful revolution in most countries, but resulted in war and genocide in the Balkans and instability in some former Soviet republics.

**Key Concept 4.3.** During the 20th century, diverse intellectual and cultural movements questioned the existence of objective knowledge, the ability of reason to arrive at truth, and the role of religion in determining moral standards.

I. The widely held belief in progress characteristic of much of 19th-century thought began to break down before World War I; the experience of war intensified a sense of anxiety that permeated many facets of thought and culture, giving way by the century’s end to a plurality of intellectual frameworks.
   a. When World War I began, Europeans were generally confident in the ability of science and technology to address human needs and problems despite the uncertainty created by the new scientific theories and psychology. (SS 8.1)
   b. The effects of world war and economic depression undermined this confidence in science and human reason, giving impetus to existentialism and producing postmodernism in the post-1945 period.

II. Science and technology yielded impressive material benefits but also caused immense destruction and posed challenges to objective knowledge. (SS 8.1)
   a. The challenge to the certainties of the Newtonian universe in physics opened the door to uncertainty in other fields by undermining faith in objective knowledge, while also providing the knowledge necessary for the development of nuclear weapons and power.
   b. Medical theories and technologies extended life but posed social and moral questions that eluded consensus and crossed religious, political, and philosophical perspectives.
   c. Military technologies made possible industrialized warfare, genocide, nuclear proliferation, and the risk of global nuclear war.

III. Organized religion continued to play a role in European social and cultural life, despite the challenges of military and ideological conflict, modern secularism, and rapid social changes. (SS 6.2)
   a. The challenges of totalitarianism and communism in Central and Eastern Europe brought mixed responses from the Christian churches.
   b. Reform in the Catholic Church found expression in the Second Vatican Council, which redefined the Church’s dogma and practices and started to redefine its relations with other religious communities.
   c. Increased immigration into Europe altered Europe’s religious makeup, causing debate and conflict over the role of religion in social and political life.

IV. During the 20th century, the arts were defined by experimentation, self-expression, subjectivity, and the increasing influence of the United States in both elite and popular culture. (SS 6.2)
   a. New movements in the visual arts, architecture and music demolished existing aesthetic standards, explored subconscious and subjective states, and satirized Western society and its values.
   b. Throughout the century, a number of writers challenged traditional literary conventions, questioned Western values, and addressed controversial social and political issues.
Key Concept 4.4 Demographic changes, economic growth, total war, disruptions of traditional social patterns, and competing definitions of freedom and justice altered the experiences of everyday life

I. The 20th century was characterized by large-scale suffering brought on by warfare and genocide as well as tremendous improvements in the standard of living. (SS 8.1)
   a. World War I created a “lost generation,” fostered disillusionment and cynicism, transformed the lives of women, and democratized societies.
   b. World War II decimated a generation of Russian and German men, virtually destroyed European Jewry, forced large-scale ethnic migrations, and undermined prewar class hierarchies.
   c. Mass production, new food technologies, and industrial efficiency increased disposable income and created a consumer culture in which greater domestic comforts, such as electricity, indoor plumbing, plastics, and synthetic fibers became available.
   d. New communication and transportation technologies multiplied the connections across space and time, transforming daily life and contributing to the proliferation of ideas and to globalization.

II. The lives of women were defined by family and work responsibilities, economic changes, and feminism. (SS 6.3)
   a. During the world wars, women became increasingly involved in military and political mobilization, as well as economic production.
   b. In Western Europe through the efforts of feminists, and in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union through government policy, women finally gained the vote, greater educational opportunities, and access to professional careers, even while continuing to face social inequalities.
   c. With economic recovery after World War II, the birth rate increased dramatically (the Baby Boom), often promoted by government policies.
   d. New modes of marriage, partnership, motherhood, divorce, and reproduction gave women more options in their personal lives.
   e. Women attained high political office and increased their representation in legislative bodies in many nations.

III. New voices gained prominence in political, intellectual, and social discourse (SS 6.2) (SS 6.3)
   a. Green parties in Western and Central Europe challenged consumerism, urged sustainable development, and, by the late 20th century, cautioned against globalization.
   b. Gay and lesbian movements worked for expanded civil rights, obtaining in some nations the right to form civil partnerships with full legal benefits or to marry.
   c. Intellectuals and youth reacted against perceived bourgeois materialism and decadence, most significantly with the revolts of 1968.
   d. Because of the economic growth of the 1950s and 1960s, numerous “guest workers” from southern Europe, Asia, and Africa immigrated to Western and Central Europe; however, after the economic downturn of the 1970s, these workers and their families often became targets of anti-immigrant agitation and extreme nationalist political parties.
STRATEGIES AND APPROACHES

Assessing prior knowledge (examples) (CCCR 12.1-12.10, CCCW 12.1-12.10):

- performance-based diagnostics (quiz, paper, etc.) that are not graded. Identify the background knowledge and skills that you feel would be necessary to achieve success in the classroom in order to create a diagnostic.
- *the minute paper:* Give students one to two minutes to address the most overarching question/theme associated with a topic.
- *the muddiest point:* Give students one to two minutes to ask/address confusing elements of a topic.
- *recognize the problem/context:* Create a historical scenario set in a time period and ask students an analytical question that asks them to provide an explanation based on the context.
- *process analysis:* Create a historical scenario set in a time period and ask students to think through the eyes of a person based on a social role. Students should discuss what they would do, limitations, etc. based on context.
- *true/false inventory:* Make a list of true/false questions based on the most pertinent information associated with a historical understanding of a topic and take a poll of the class for answers for each question.
- *applications:* Mention a historical concept and don’t define it. See if students are able to apply it in many ways.
- *concept mapping:* Have students create a map of interrelated items based on a concept.
- *journal entry:* Have students self-reflect based on focused questions.
- *gallery walk:* Create a chart, graph, or map based on a concept or theme, break the class into groups, and fill in areas that need to be completed to demonstrate an understanding of a concept/theme.

Formative assessments: the goal of formative assessments is to gauge student learning throughout the process of developing an understanding of a key concept/theme/skill. Ideally, assessments should be low-stakes activities that provide an element of feedback or self-reflection. Examples follow (CCCR 12.1-12.10, CCCW 12.1-12.10)

- *ask good questions:* Think of pertinent questions and give time for responses.
- *create a discussion:* Discussions could be structured or unstructured but should provide a forum where students and teachers can gauge and deepen their understanding.
- *exit/admit slips for understanding:* Short quiz question(s) that students must answer to enter/leave room.
- *summarization tasks:* Briefly sum up what students learned.
- *hand in, pass out:* Questions posed by the teacher and anonymously answered by students. Students grade each other and then are polled about questions afterwards.
- *learning/response logs:* More of a journal-based (could be online) activity in which there could be both self-reflection and feedback.
- *metacognitive assessment questions:* Complete a table based on questions such as a) What did we do? b) Why did we do it? c) What did I learn today? d) How can I apply what I’ve learned? e) What questions do I still have?
- *all thumbs:* Thumbs up, down or in the middle based on question (which students do with their eyes closed or some other way anonymously).
- *red and green cards:* Two-sided card with different colors that students turn for the teacher to view whether they understand something or not.
- *google forms:* Online Q and A.
- *clickers:* Use a technological student response system (poll anywhere, socratic teacher, etc.).
- *flubaroo:* Use [www.flubaroo.com](http://www.flubaroo.com) or some other quiz format to create a self-assessment quiz.
- *practice and peer-reviewed presentations or think/pair/share:* enable students to discuss first with each other before presenting to a larger audience
STRATEGIES AND APPROACHES (cont’d)

Summative assessments: summative assessments are defined as ways to evaluate students learning at the end of an instructional unit, course, etc. They have typically been distinguished in pedagogic literature as higher stakes and performance-based indicators based on some standard or benchmark (as distinguished from formative types of assessments). Examples follow (CCCR 12.1-12.10, CCCW 12.1-12.10):

- unit tests
- district, state-based or national exams
- entrance exams
- final projects
- final paper
- audio/visual or multimedia presentation
- some practical-based application (policy brief-based and recommendations-based on historical support)

Classroom strategies: instructional strategies (as outlined earlier in this guide) should be chosen based on numerous criteria. The strategies (outlined below) are taken directly from College Board recommendations and support discussion-based strategies because “effective discussion and collaboration” requires “students to grapple with others’ ideas as they formulate their own perspectives on an issue”. Examples follow (CCCR 12.1-12.10, CCCW 12.1-12.10):

- socratic seminar: A discussion based on open-ended questions in which student groups engage in separate discussions. The teacher facilitates and brings the groups together to assess things like a) areas of confusion b) linkages to the larger themes of the course.
- debate: The teacher facilitates an informal or formal debate between two or more groups in which each group defends a claim based on evidence.
- fishbowl: A group of “inner” students discuss a question while “outer” students listen, respond, and evaluate.
- shared inquiry: Students read a provocative text, respond to interpretative questions (no right/wrong answer), and present/respond as groups. Each group is given a different text/document from which group members are formulating their answers.
- discussion: Interactive discussion with assigned roles to engage a topic, concept, or question.
- debriefing: A facilitated discussion at the end of a topic/unit in which a question is asked and answered for the purpose of arriving at “takeaways” or a consensus.
- jigsaw: Each member of a group becomes an “expert” on a topic/category/document, and then they are regrouped with other “experts” of other topics/categories/documents to create a panel discussion based on perspectives.
- questioning a text: A. students read a text based on a purpose/focus questions (that the teacher provides) B. students then research and present information C. the teacher will lead a discussion to draw out the important/common factors tied to a concept/theme D. teacher finally extends the discussion to other areas (geographically in Europe, as a contrast to other time periods, etc…).